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In-situ pyrolysis of *Enteromorpha* as carbocatalyst for catalytic removal of organic contaminants: Considering the intrinsic N/Fe in *Enteromorpha* and non-radical reaction



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ABSTRACT

An environmentally friendly, facile, and economical Fe/N co-doped carbonaceous material (Fe-N@C) was prepared by the in-situ pyrolysis of Fe/N rich <code>Enteromorpha</code> biomass for peroxymonosulfate activation and organic contaminants degradation. Results indicated that <code>Enteromorpha</code>-based catalysts prepared at high pyrolysis temperature displayed some highly graphitic nanosheets with rich nitrogen doped. The graphitic N derived from the intrinsic N in <code>Enteromorpha</code> showed the high correlation with the paracetamol (PCM) removal rate; this was confirmed by the Density Functional Theory (DFT) calculation, showing the high adsorption energy (ΔE_{ads} , -2.62 eV) of PMS molecular adsorbed onto the graphitic N area. A weak correlation between the PCM removal rate and adsorption capacity was also observed, revealing that the PCM catalytic reaction could be greatly accelerated after the pre-adsorption. It was interesting that the intrinsic Fe in <code>Enteromorpha</code> did not affect the PCM degradation, but PCM removal rate of acid treated Fe-N/C was improved as more active sites were formed after the Fe extraction by acid treatment. Both the radical pathways of O_2 and non-radical 1O_2 generated in the Fe-N@C/PMS system were the primary mechanisms for the PCM degradation, which was consistent with the Fukui function values of f and f- based on the DFT calculation. In addition, high stability of the carbon-based catalysts was observed after three runs and calcinating regeneration, which showed the promising applications for environmental remediation.

1. Introduction

The pharmaceuticals and personal care products (PPCPs) in natural waters has received increasing concerns in recent decades because of their adverse effect on health and aquatic environment [1–5]. As one of the most common PPCPs, paracetamol (PCM) is widely used for treating the headache, arthralgia, and fever in adults and children [6,7]. Due to its persistence in the receiving environment and inefficacy by biological treatment, the accumulation of PCM in lakes, rivers, groundwater and even drinking water has been detected, which results in harmful consequences for ecosystem and human health [8,9].

Advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) are receiving more concerns for in situ destruction of PCM in aquatic environment [9-13]. Most reported work was based on the forms of reactive hydroxyl radicals

('OH) in different systems [14]. Over the last decade, sulfate radical $(SO_4$.') based AOPs are considered to be the innovative oxidative treatment for the organic contaminants in water. The SO_4 .' could be activated from persulfates, e.g. peroxymonosulfate (PMS) and peroxydisulfate (PDS), which exerted several advantages with respect to 'OH, such as higher redox potential (2.5–3.1 V) and higher life time (30–40 us) [15]

Persulfates activated by a series of transition metal ions $(Cu^{2+}, Fe^{2+}, Fe^{2+}, Ni^+, and Ce^{3+})$ or metal oxides $(Co_3O_4, MnO_2, FeMnO_x)$ were reported to be effective to generate the sulfate radicals [16–19]. However, the inevitable metal leaching into environment caused irreversible catalytic deactivation reaction and secondary pollution, which greatly restricted their practical applications in field. More recently, carbon materials (e.g. CNTs, GO, and activated carbon) emerged as

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promising alternatives for PMS activation due to their intrinsic open and sp²-hybridized carbon matrix with versatile catalytic groups and edges [20-25]. Although they could greatly alleviate metal leaching issues, the catalytic performances of these metal-free catalysts were still unsatisfactory and the exact nature of the catalytic sites in the carbon matrix is still controversial [22]. As a result, enormous studies have focused on the carbon matrix with N or metal doped, which could form more catalytic sites for enhancing the carbocatalysis [15,19,26-29]. Long et al. prepared the N-doped hierarchically porous carbon using tannic acid and dicyandiamide [30]. Yao et al. further fabricated multiple metal encapsulated nitrogen-doped carbon nanotubes using dicyandiamide and salts of metal [31]. The enhanced active sites in the composites were ascribed to the nitrogen-doped carbon and encapsulated metal nanoparticles in the carbon matrix, and the encapsulated metal nanoparticles can also be protected from leaching [31]. However, fabrication of these carbon-based materials always required complicated synthesis routes and synthetic reagents with high costs, which would confine their further application at the current stage

Enteromorpha is a kind of green algae, which is rich in nitrogenous compounds, e.g. polysaccharides, proteins and vitamins [32,33]. In addition, high amounts of Fe (0.2-0.5 wt %) in Enteromorpha were also reported [34]. As a result, fascinating strategy using both the high amounts of N and Fe in the Enteromorpha as alternatives to be co-doped into the carbonaceous material after in-situ pyrolysis of Enteromorpha was proposed, which attempted to form the "green" catalyst for the destruction of organics. In addition, it should be pointed that the biomass after in-situ pyrolysis always endowed with considerable pore structures and abundant surface groups for organic molecules adsorption [23]. As a result, the adsorptive and catalytic performances of Enteromorpha derived carbonaceous material should be evaluated.

In this work, we reported an environmentally friendly, facile, economical, and fascinating process for fabricating the N and Fe co-doped carbonaceous material (Fe-N@C) by the thermal treatment of *Enteromorpha* biomass. PCM catalytic performances considering the roles of intrinsic N and Fe in the *Enteromorpha* were evaluated. The adsorptive and catalytic performances of some other biomass-based catalysts were also presented. The underlying mechanism for the degradation of PCM in PMS/Fe-N@C system was particularly concerned according to the Density Functional Theory (DFT).

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Chemicals

The *Enteromorpha* was obtained from Qingdao (36.10 N, 120.51 E), Shandong Province in China. The pristine *Enteromorpha* biomass was first washed with tap water, dried in air and then sieved into powders with size of 250–500 μ m. The chemicals, including KOH, H₂SO₄, NaOH, NaH₂PO₄, Na₂SO₄, NaCl, NaHCO₃, humic acid and HCl (32%–37%) were obtained from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co. Ltd. The potassium peroxymonosulfate (PMS), 5,5-dimethyl-1-pyrroline-*N*-oxide (DMPO), 2,2,6,6-Tetramethyl-4-piperidone (4-oxo-TEMP), ethanol (EtOH), *tert*-butyl alcohol (TBA), p-benzoquinone (p-BQ) and $_L$ -histidine were provided from Sigma-Aldrich.

2.2. Fabrication of Fe-N@C catalysts from Enteromorpha

The carbonization of *Enteromorpha* biomass (5.0 g) was first carried out in $\rm N_2$ atmosphere in a tube furnace at temperature of 500 °C for 1.5 h. The carbonized *Enteromorpha* biomass was then collected after cooling to ambient temperature. Then, approximately 3.0 g of carbonized *Enteromorpha* was mixed with 1.5 g of KOH. The mixture was placed on the combustion boat and annealed in a tube furnace for 60 min under the nitrogen atmosphere. The annealing temperatures were designed in the range of 600–900 °C with rate of 5 °C min $^{-1}$. After

cooling, the Fe-N@C catalysts prepared at different temperatures (600, 700, 800 and 900 °C) were ground, washed with deionized water repeatedly, dried and stored before use. To test the adsorptive and catalytic capacity of Fe-N@C after acid treatment, sample of Fe-N@C 700 was mixed with 1 M $\rm H_2SO_4$ for 10 h (80 °C). The sample was washing with deionized water and ethanol. It was then collected after drying in an oven. Other typical biomass (e.g. soybean, *spirulina*, bean stalk, and kelp) were also fabricated into the catalysts as above procedures. Characterization of the pristine, carbonized *Enteromorpha* biomass as well as multiple Fe-N@C catalysts was presented in Supporting file.

2.3. PCM adsorption and degradation tests

Unless stated otherwise, all the PCM degradation tests were conducted by mixing 5 mg of catalysts, 0.5 mM of PMS and 50 mL of PCM solution (10 mg/L) in 125 mL of Erlenmeyer flask. The pH of suspension was controlled at 5.6 with the stirring at 300 rpm. As the reaction was initiated, 1 mL of sample was withdrawn and filtered using the $0.22\,\mu m$ film. Then the reaction was quenched by adding 0.5 mL of methanol. The residual PCM in the resultant solution was determined by a highperformance liquid chromatograph (HPLC, UltiMate 3000) with a C-18 column. PCM degradation at different Fe-N@C dosages (0.02 - 0.1 g/L), PMS dosages (0.15-1.0 mM), and pH conditions (3.6-10.5) was evaluated. PCM degradation in Fe-N@C/PMS system considering the coexisting Cl-, HCO3-, H2PO4-, and humic acid (HA) was also determined. The catalytic quenching reactions were conducted by adding different quenching agents, e.g. EtOH, TBA, p-BQ and L-histidine into the Fe-N@C/PMS system. After each cycle, the used catalyst was collected, washed with deionized water and dried for reuse. The used Fe-N@C after three cycles was also regenerated after heating at 350 °C to test its stability and reusability. PCM adsorption tests were conducted as the same procedures with the absence of PMS. All tests were conducted in duplicate.

2.4. Analysis

The mobile phase in HPLC was a mixture of methanol and UP water (55/45, v/v) with flow rate at 0.8 mL/min and 20 μ L of injection volume (temperature at 35 °C), and it was detected at wavenumber of 248 nm. The intermediates of PCM were analyzed by HPLC-MS (maXis, Bruker Co., USA) to evaluate the PCM degradation pathways. The free radical species in the system were detected by an electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectrometer (Bruker EMX/plus spectrometer, Germany). Electrochemical parameters of the catalysts were collected from a CHI 760D electrochemical workstation (Shanghai Chenhua Instrument Co., China). The details for the electrochemical tests as well as determination of intermediates and free radicals were given in the Supporting file.

3. Results and discussions

3.1. Characterization

The SEM images showed the intrinsic porous architecture in FeN@C 700 (Fig. 1a) and the SEM element mapping indicated that the N corresponded to the C distribution with Fe dispersed in the architecture (Fig. 1b). The HRTEM images showed some nanosheets decorated in the carbon layers of Fe-N@C 700 (Fig. 1c). The crystalline spacing (0.3447 nm) of nanosheets was extremely close to graphite of 0.35 nm (Fig. 1d), which indicated the form of graphite layers in the Fe-N@C 700 [23]. TEM element mapping also showed the well corresponded C, N and Fe distributions (Fig. 1e), which indicated that the intrinsic N and Fe in *Enteromorpha* biomass were co-doped in the carbon matrix after pyrolysis. ICP of the Fe-N@C 700 showed 0.60% of Fe mass, which was higher than that (0.27%) in the *Enteromorpha* biomass (Table S1). This indicated that the Fe mass was concentrated after pyrolysis.

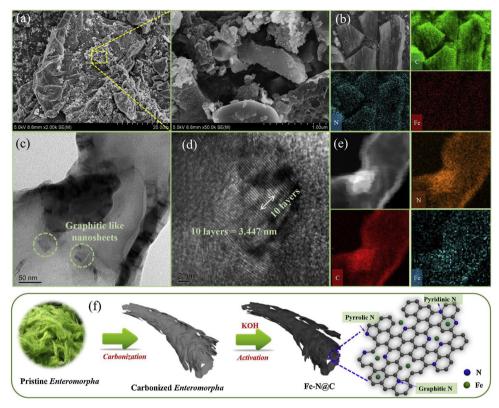


Fig. 1. (a) SEM of Fe-N@C 700 (b) SEM element mappings of Fe-N@C 700; (c) TEM of Fe-N@C 700 (50 nm); (d) TEM of Fe-N@C 700 (2 nm); (e) TEM element mappings of Fe-N@C 700; (f) preparation scheme of Fe-C@N from the *Enteromorpha* biomass.

Table 1 Surface properties of pristine *Enteromorpha* biomass, carbonized *Enteromorpha* biomass, as well as multiple Fe-N@C catalysts.

Samples	BET surface area (m ² /g)	Pore volume (cm ³ /g)	Average pore size (nm)
Pristine Enteromorpha	11.505	0.060	20.704
Carbonized Enteromorpha	24.281	0.082	13.567
Fe-N@C-600	140.405	0.244	6.941
Fe-N@C-700	638.116	0.545	3.416
Fe-N@C-800	851.654	0.692	3.249
Fe-N@C-900	983.657	0.839	3.414

Surface properties of pristine Enteromorpha biomass, carbonized Enteromorpha biomass, as well as multiple Fe-N@C catalysts were given in Table 1 and Fig. S1. The BET surface areas of Enteromorpha based catalysts after pyrolysis were in the range of $140.405-983.657 \, \mathrm{m}^2/\mathrm{g}$, extremely higher than those ($11.505-24.281 \, \mathrm{m}^2/\mathrm{g}$) of pristine and carbonized Enteromorpha biomass. A richer porous architecture was created in the Enteromorpha based catalysts as the rise in pyrolysis temperature due to the decomposition of tar compounds in Enteromorpha biomass [23]. The pore volumes of these Fe-N@C catalysts were in the range of $0.244-0.839 \, \mathrm{cm}^3/\mathrm{g}$ with average pore sizes of $3.249-6.941 \, \mathrm{nm}$. Such a highly porous architecture was very favorable for the adsorptive and degradative applications.

The chemical compositions of the Fe-N@C could be evaluated by the XPS measurement, which could provide the intrinsic catalytic sites for PMS activation. The total amount of N in pristine *Enteromorpha* biomass was 5.37%, and it was decreased to 3.51% after carbonization. The further decrease in the N amounts of Fe-N@C catalysts (1.93% \rightarrow 0.62%) were observed with the rise in pyrolysis temperature (Fig. S2), which may be ascribed to the decomposition of unstable nitrogen species at higher temperatures [35]. The three fitted peaks (398.5, 400.0 and 401.2 eV) of N 1 s shown in Fig. 2a can be assigned to the pyridinic

N, pyrrolic N, and graphitic N [36,37]. It was known that the graphitic N is more thermally stable among all the nitrogen species, and it could contribute to the distortion of carbon network, which produced more defective edges for PMS activation [23,30,38,39]. An increased graphitic N fraction from atomic 28.3% (Fe-N@C 600) to atomic 50.3% (Fe-N@C 900) was observed (Fig. S3), assigning to the more transformation of pyridinic N/pyrrolic N to graphitic N with increased pyrolysis temperature. Fe 2p spectra (Fig. 2b) of these catalysts were deconvoluted, which fell in the range of Fe(III). In addition, XPS Fe 2p indicated that the atomic % of Fe (0.25 – 0.57%) in the Enteromorpha based catalysts was higher than those of pristine (0.21%) and carbonized Enteromorpha biomass (0.25%). This indicated that the unstable carbon was significantly decomposed with increased pyrolysis temperature, which enriched the Fe amounts in the Fe-N@C catalysts. C 1 s spectrum (Fig. S4 and Table S2) of pristine Enteromorpha biomass could be deconvoluted into C=C (284.1 eV), C-C/C-N (285.0 eV), C-O (285.8 eV), and O–C=O (287.2 eV). In contrast, a weak π - π * shake up satellite (290.2 eV) was observed in the C 1s spectrum of carbonized Enteromorpha biomass and the intensity of peak was further increased in those Fe-N@C catalysts (Fig. S5). This indicated the formation of graphitic structure at high pyrolysis temperature, which was corresponded well to their graphitic N fractions in N 1s spectra.

Raman spectra exhibited that the I_D/I_G of carbonized *Enteromorpha* was around 0.85 (Fig. S6). However, the ratios of I_D/I_G were up to 0.94–0.98 for multiple Fe-N@C catalysts after further pyrolysis at 600–900 °C. This implied that the graphitization degree of Fe-N@C was greatly improved and more defective edges were produced by the pyrolysis treatment [23,39,40]. In addition, a strong peak at 43.3° in XRD patterns was observed (Fig. S7), which can be attributed to the (100) plane of crystalline carbons in the Fe-N@C [21,41,42]. The enhanced crystalline peak implied that the graphitization degree in Fe-N@C was increased with the rise in pyrolysis temperature.

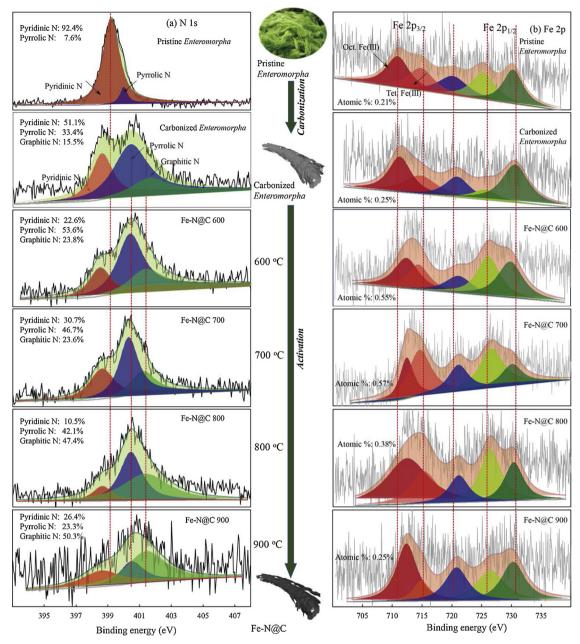


Fig. 2. XPS (a) N1 s and (b) Fe2p of pristine Enteromorpha biomass, carbonized Enteromorpha biomass, as well as multiple catalysts derived from Enteromorpha biomass.

3.2. PCM adsorptive and catalytic performances of multiple Fe-N@C

PCM adsorptive and catalytic capacities of Fe-N@C derived from different pyrolysis temperatures were given in Fig. 3. More than 63.2%, 64.9%, 89.5%, 89.7% of PCM could be adsorbed onto the Fe-N@C 600, 700, 800 and 900 with maximum PCM adsorption capacity (q_e , mmol/g) calculated to be 0.424, 0.430, 0.596, and 0.597 mmol/g, respectively (Fig. 3a). This indicated the considerable adsorption capacity of multiple Fe-N@C for PCM. In contrast, pristine and carbonized *Enteromorpha* biomass showed negligible PCM adsorption capacities (Fig. S8). Catalysts obtained at higher pyrolysis temperature exhibited significantly higher adsorption capacities towards PCM; this may be benefited from (i) the high surface areas of the catalysts, and (ii) the strong π - π interactions between the PCM molecules and graphitic carbon in Fe-N@C [23,39,43,44]. The removal degradation of PCM in the Fe-N@C/PMS systems were shown in Fig. 3b. Complete removal of PCM could be achieved by all Fe-N@C catalysts and the PCM removal

rate was increased from 0.0931 to 0.2472 min⁻¹ with the increase in pyrolysis temperature (Fig. S9). In contrast, the carbonized *Enteromorpha* only showed a small removal rate (0.0232 min⁻¹). The PCM removal rates showed the positive correlation ($R^2 = 0.9496$) with the fractions of graphitic N (%) in different Fe-N@C samples (Fig. 3c). This result confirmed the essential role of graphitic N for activating PMS. In addition, the removal rates also displayed a weak correlation ($R^2 = 0.8429$) with the PCM adsorption capacities by different Fe-N@C samples (Fig. 3d). This result indicated that more PCM molecules were involved in the charge-transport process as higher adsorption capacity rendered [23], which contributed to the catalytic reaction on the surface of Fe-N@C.

It was quite interesting that Fe-N@C-700 after acid treatment exhibited the better PCM removal rate (Figs. 3e and S10). The Fe atomic % in acid treated Fe-N@C-700 was only 0.14% (Fig. 3f), which showed a high Fe extraction from the pristine catalyst (0.57%). In addition, the stable graphite structure in the catalyst after acid treatment was

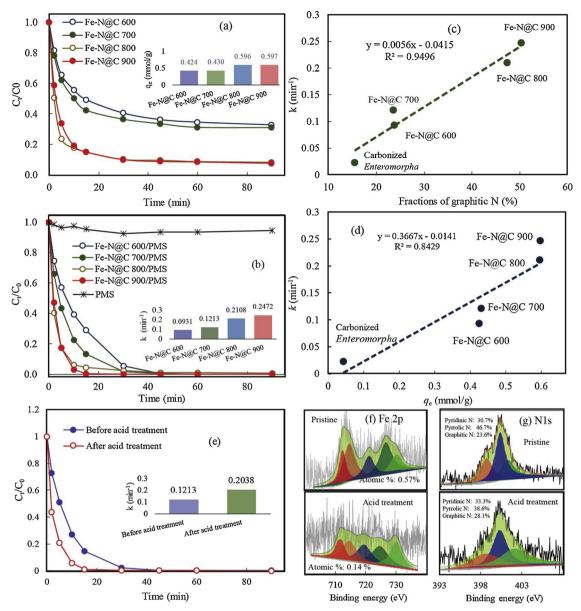


Fig. 3. PCM adsorption capacity of different *Enteromorpha* based catalysts; (b) PCM catalytic performance of different *Enteromorpha* based catalysts; (c) The correlation between PCM removal rate and graphitic N (%) fractions in different *Enteromorpha* based catalysts; (d) The correlation between PCM removal rate and adsorption capacity achieved by different *Enteromorpha* based catalysts; (e) PCM catalytic performance of Fe-N@C-700 before and after acid treatment; (f) N 1s and (g) Fe 2p of Fe-N@C 700 before and after acid treatment ([PMS] $_0 = 0.5 \text{ mM}$, [PCM] $_0 = 10 \text{ mg/L}$, catalyst dose = 0.1 g/L, pH = 5.6).

observed (Fig. 3g). This indicated that the Fe species in the catalyst did not contribute to the catalytic reaction, and the superior removal efficiency after acid treatment might be probably due to the forms of new active sites after Fe extraction [22]. This was also confirmed by the increased adsorption capacity of Fe-N@C-700 after acid treatment, which induced more porous structures for PCM adsorption (Fig. S11).

3.3. PCM degradation by other biomass-based catalysts

Other N rich biomass (soybean, *spirulina*, bean stalk, and kelp) were also employed for preparing the metal-free catalysts based on the same procedures. Adsorptive and catalytic performances of these biomass-based catalysts for PCM were presented in Figs. 4 and S12. The PCM adsorption onto these catalysts varied from 30.3 to 99.8% with BET surface areas in the ranges of $183.960-727.271 \,\mathrm{m}^2/\mathrm{g}$ (Fig. S13 and Table S3). The high BET surface area (727.271 m^2/g) of Soybean based catalyst only show a small adsorption capacity (30%) towards PCM. As a result, the higher surface areas did not correspond to the superior

adsorptive performance, which indicated that other forces, e.g. chemisorption, electrostatic attraction, and π - π interactions, also contributed to the PCM adsorption [23]. The PCM removal rates $(k \text{ min}^{-1})$ of Enteromorpha, soybean, Spirulina, bean stalk, and kelp derived catalysts were calculated to be 0.1213, 0.0106, 0.032, 0.0319 and $0.2952 \,\mathrm{min}^{-1}$, which showed a weak correlation ($R^2 = 0.8603$) with their PCM adsorption capacities (Figs. S14 and 4b). XPS spectra of these biomass-based catalysts were shown in Figs. S15 and 4c. The atomic N of these catalysts were in the range of 1.45-7.03%. The high N content (7.03%) in the spirulina-based catalyst only exhibited a small PCM removal rate (0.032 min⁻¹). As a result, the high N contents in the catalysts did not mean the high catalytic performance. Different fractions of pyridinic N, pyrrolic N, and graphitic N were also deconvoluted from the XPS N 1 s of these catalysts (Fig. 4c). The kelp showed an extremely high graphitic N fraction (57.3%), which corresponded to the high removal rate (0.2952 min⁻¹). Most importantly, a highly positive correlation ($R^2 = 0.987$) was observed between the removal rates k and the graphitic N (%) compositions in these biomass-based catalysts (Figs. 4d

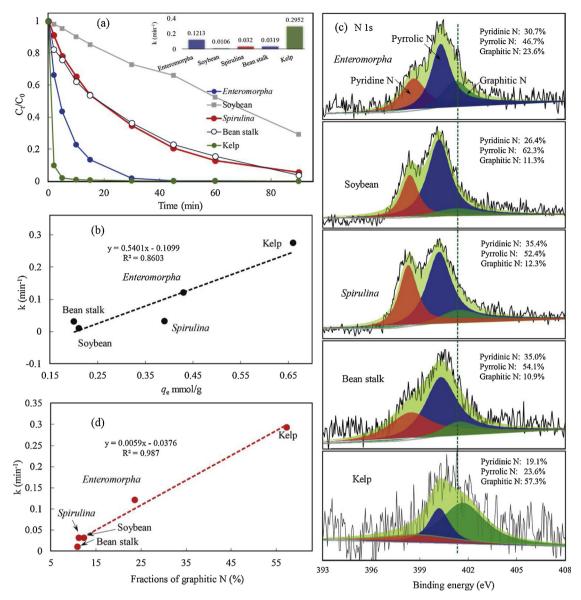


Fig. 4. (a) PCM catalytic performance of multiple biomass-based catalysts; (b) The correlation between PCM removal rate and adsorption capacity achieved by multiple biomass-based catalysts; (c) N 1s of multiple biomass-based catalysts; (d) A correlation between PCM removal rate and fractions of graphitic N (%) in different biomass-based catalysts; ($[PMS]_0 = 0.5 \text{ mM}$, $[PCM]_0 = 10 \text{ mg/L}$, catalyst dose = 0.1 g/L, pH = 5.6).

and S16). These results further confirmed that the graphitic N compositions dominated the PCM catalytic reaction.

3.4. PCM degradation in different conditions

PCM catalytic performances in different operation conditions were conducted to evaluate the parameters required in practical use. Effect of Fe-N@C dosage on PCM degradation was shown in Fig. 5a. In a low Fe-N@C dosage (0.02 g/L), 80% of PCM (*k* at 0.0173 min⁻¹) could be removed within 90 min and only 10% of adsorption was involved (Figs. S18 and S19a). As the dosage increased to 0.1 g/L, PCM could be completely removed within 30 min (*k*: 0.1224 min⁻¹) and the adsorption of PCM onto Fe-N@C was increased to 60%. As a result, a high Fe-N@C dosage both contributed to the improved catalytic and adsorptive performances due to the increase in the active sites.

PCM removal rates at different PMS dosages were given in Fig. 5b. The removal rate k was only 0.0654 min⁻¹ at PMS loading of 0.25 mM, and it was significantly increased to 0.1213 min⁻¹ at PMS loading of 0.5 mM (Fig. S19b). A further increase in PMS loading from 0.5 to

1.0 mM only resulted in a slight rise in k from 0.1213 to 0.1306 min⁻¹. The increasing PMS dosage would activate more sites on the surfaces of Fe-N@C to attack PCM molecules. As a result, PMS dosage was the rate limiting factor for PCM degradation at low PMS dosage [45]. However, the active sites were gradually saturated at high PMS loadings, which means that the amounts of active sites on the surfaces of catalyst was the key constraint factor at high level of PMS [45].

PCM degradation in terms of pH was shown in Fig. 5c. Interestingly, PCM removal rate increased at more acidic or alkaline conditions. It was observed that PCM adsorption was greatly enhanced with the decrease of pH, partially due to the positively charged surface of Fe-N@C at lower pH conditions (Fig. 5d). As a result, the charge-transport process was accelerated and thus the increase in catalytic performances were observed [19]. Miao suggested that the $^1{\rm O}_2$ generated at acidic condition through Eq. (1) can also lead to the better catalytic activity [46]. As for the alkaline condition, PMS activation in alkaline conditions could be facilitated because excessive OH $^-$ in solution was favorable to donate an electron as compared with the H₂O molecules [47]. Although the adsorptive performance at pH = 10.5 was relatively

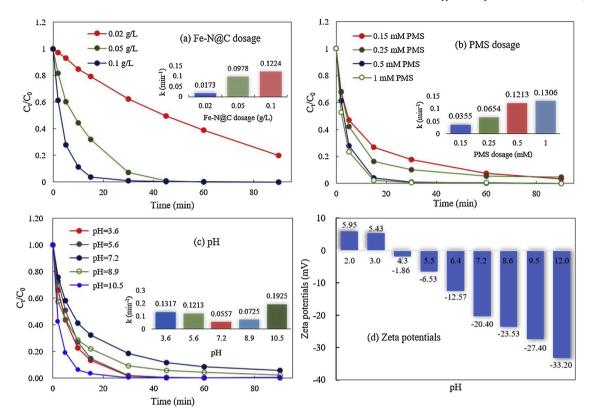


Fig. 5. PCM degradation in different conditions (a) Fe-N@C dosage; (b) PMS dosage; (c) pH; (d) zeta potentials of Fe-N@C in terms of pH ($[PMS]_0 = 0.5 \text{ mM}$, $[PCM]_0 = 10 \text{ mg/L}$, Fe-N@C dose = 0.1 g/L, pH = 5.6).

poor (Fig. S20), an enhanced catalytic performance also occurred, which was attributed to more reactive radicals generated during PMS activation at alkaline condition [48,49].

$$HSO_5^- + SO_5^{2-} \rightarrow HSO_4^- + SO_4^{2-} + {}^{1}O_2$$
 (1)

3.5. Radical and non-radical pathways

Since PMS activation can occur through both the radical and non-radical oxidation, the radicals generated in Fe-N@C/PMS system should be intensively identified [15,28,50]. Herein, different radical quenching reactions based on the radical scavengers (EtOH, TBA, p-BQ and L-histidine) was conducted. EtOH is the effective scavenger for both SO_4 and OH radicals (reaction rate of $k_{SO4-+EtOH}=1.6\times10^7~{\rm M}^{-1}~{\rm s}^{-1}$ and $k_{\cdot OH+EtOH}=1.9\times10^9~{\rm M}^{-1}~{\rm s}^{-1}$). In contrast, TBA is the typical quenching agent for OH ($k_{\cdot OH+TBA}=6.0\times10^8~{\rm M}^{-1}~{\rm s}^{-1}$). The existence of high levels of EtOH and TBA showed the very limited inhibition effects on PCM degradation and still 100% of degradation efficiency was retained within 90 min with only a small decrease in removal rate k (Fig. 6a and b). This implied that the radical pathways involving SO_4 and OH were indeed generated in the Fe-N@C/PMS system but only donated a very small contribution to the PCM removal.

Furthermore, the superoxide anion radical (O_2 ¯) was determined by using p-BQ as scavenging regent (1.0×10^9 M $^{-1}$ s $^{-1}$). It is found that 80% of efficiency (k: 0.0266 min $^{-1}$) was retained with adding 5 mM of p-BQ and the removal efficiency was further decreased to only 37% (k: 0.012 min $^{-1}$) at 25 mM of p-BQ (Figs. 6c and S21c). This indicated that the radical pathway of O_2 - was quite important in the PCM degradation reaction. The $_L$ -histidine was a unique scavenger for 1O_2 and the adding of $_L$ -histidine into the system caused a significant inhibitory effect on PCM removal, with only 30% of removal efficiency (k of 0.0094 min $^{-1}$) retained within 90 min at the addition of 25 mM $_L$ -histidine (Figs. 6d and S21d). This suggested that non-radical pathway (1O_2) was also predominant in the Fe-N@C/PMS system.

EPR spectra in Fe-N@C/PMS system using DMPO for trapping O_2 and TEMP for 1O_2 were shown in Fig. 6e and f. No signals of O_2 and 1O_2 are detected for sole PMS. However, characteristic signals of DMPO- O_2 appeared in the PMS/Fe-N@C and PMS/Fe-N@C/PCM systems; this indicated that the Fe-N@C greatly promoted the PMS activation for O_2 generation. Similarly, the strong signals of triplet EPR spectra with equal intensities corresponding to the oxidation of TEMP by 1O_2 were detected in PMS/Fe-N@C and PMS/Fe-N@C/PCM systems. As a result, a large amount of 1O_2 was also produced in the Fe-N@C/PMS system for PCM degradation.

To further confirm the presence of 1O_2 , PCM degradation tests in different solvents were conducted. By exchanging the solvent from H_2O to D_2O , the lifetime of 1O_2 exists in the solution will be extended more than 10 times [51]. Aiming at distinguishing the role of 1O_2 , the PCM concentration in both H_2O and D_2O solution was added up to 40 mg/L while other conditions remained constant. As shown in Fig. S22(a), only 79.3% of PCM (40 mg/L) was removed (k: 0.0281 min^{-1}) within 90 min in H_2O solution, whereas the degradation efficiency within 90 min in D_2O solution was 99.2% (k: 0.0495 min^{-1}). It can be concluded that singlet oxygen was truly generated during the degradation process, and the longer lifetime of 1O_2 triggered better removal efficiency. This is further endorsed by the result of EPR spectra (Fig. S22(b)), in which the intensity of TEMP adducts signal in Fe-N@C/PMS/ H_2O system is much weaker than that in Fe-N@C/PMS/ D_2O system.

The formation of O_2 may attribute to the activation of PMS by FeN@C catalyst, in which electron transfer plays an important role. Hydroxyl radical, which emerged during the PMS activation process, reacted with hydrogen peroxide in the Fe-N@C/PMS system to generate perhydroxyl radicals. Then, perhydroxyl radicals decomposed and gave rise to the superoxide anion radical (Eqs. (2)–(8)) [48,49,52,53].

$$HSO_5^- \to H^+ + SO_5^{2-}$$
 (2)

$$HSO_5^- + H_2 O \rightarrow H_2O_2 + HSO_4^-$$
 (3)

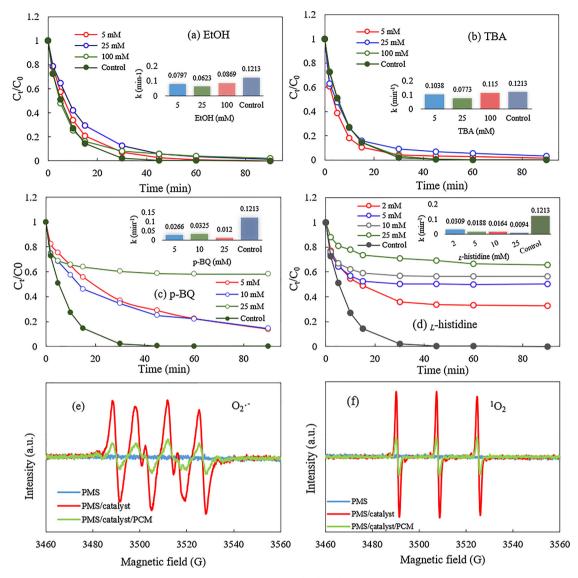


Fig. 6. PCM degradation in different scavenger systems (a) EtOH, (b) TBA, (c) BQ, (d) $_L$ -histidine; (e) ESR spectra in Fe-N@C/PMS system using DMPO for O_2^{--} ; (f) TEMP for 1O_2 ; ([PMS] $_0 = 0.5 \text{ mM}$, [PCM] $_0 = 10 \text{ mg/L}$, Fe-N@C dose = 0.1 g/L).

$$SO_5^{-} + H_2 O \rightarrow H_2 O_2 + SO_4^{-}$$
 (4) $HSO_5^{-} \rightarrow H^+ + SO_5^{-} + e$ (9)

$$H_2O_2 + OH^- \rightarrow H_2 O + HO_7^-$$
 (5) $SO_5^- + SO_5^- \rightarrow 2SO_4^{2-} + {}^1O_2$ (10)

$$H_2O_2 \rightarrow 2 \cdot OH$$
 (6) $SO_5^- + SO_5^- \rightarrow S_2O_8^{2-} + {}^1O_2$ (11)

$$\cdot \text{OH} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \to \text{HO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$$
 (7) $\text{O}_2^{--} + \cdot \text{OH} \to {}^1\text{O}_2 + \text{OH}^-$ (12)

$$HO_2^{-} \rightarrow H^+ + O_2^{--}$$
 (8) $2O_2^{--} + 2H^+ \rightarrow H_2O_2 + {}^1O_2$ (13)

$$2O_2^- + 2H_2 O \rightarrow H_2O_2 + 2OH^- + {}^1O_2$$
 (14)

$$HO_2^{-} + O_2^{--} \rightarrow {}^{1}O_2 + HO_2^{--}$$
 (15)

The electrochemical evaluation was conducted to further investigate the charge transfer between PMS molecule and Fe-N@C catalyst. As displayed in Fig. 7a, the increased current in the catalyst/PMS and catalyst/PMS/PCM systems was observed as compared with that of sole catalyst during linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) detection. This suggested that the addition of PMS could interact with the active sites of Fe-N@C, forming the metastable reactive complex [23]. Fitting of Ny-quist plots represented the charge-transfer resistance value (120.3 Ω) of Fe-N@C (Fig. S23), which showed the excellent conductivity and electron-transfer property of Fe-N@C. In addition, current outputs at

groups distributed on the surface of Fe-N@C might be the active centers for the evolution of $^1\mathrm{O}_2$. Shao proposed an electron conduction mechanism between PMS (electron donor) and electrophilic C=O groups (electron accepter) [56]. PMS anion radicals ($\mathrm{SO_5}^-$), which are generated by releasing an electron from PMS, will be further combined to form $\mathrm{S_2O_8}^{2-}$ or $\mathrm{SO_4}^{2-}$ ions, and meanwhile produce $^1\mathrm{O_2}$ (Eqs. (9)–(11)). Moreover, $\mathrm{O_2}^-$ also acts a pivotal role in the generation of $^1\mathrm{O_2}$. For instance, singlet oxygen could be produced by the reaction of superoxide anion radical and hydroxyl radical (or perhydroxyl radical)

(Eqs. (12)-(15)).

Typically, the electron-rich ketonic groups (C=O) located on the

boundaries of sp²-conjugated carbon lattice play a significant role in interacting with PMS through nucleophilic addition and mediating di-

oxirane intermediates to generate singlet oxygen [54,55]. The carbonyl

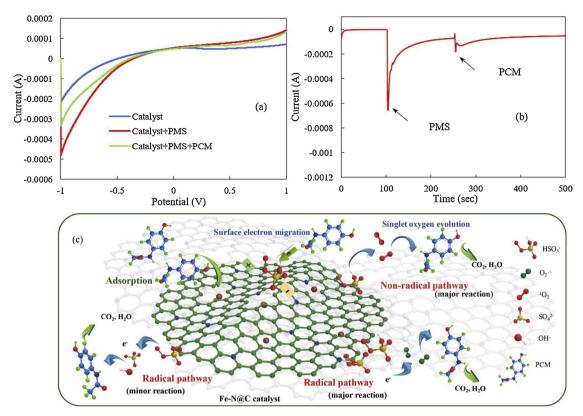


Fig. 7. (a) LSV curves under different conditions; (b) i-t curve of Fe-N@C ([PMS] $_0 = 1 \text{ mM}$; [PCM] $^\circ = 10 \text{ mg/L}$, pH $_i = 7.0$); (c) Mechanism scheme of PCM removal in Fe-N@C/PMS system.

the Fe-N@C coated electrode after PMS addition followed by PCM addition were given in Fig. 7b. The significant current generations with the adding of PMS (1 mM) at 100 s and PCM (10 mg/L) at 250 s was observed. This was an evidence proving that the strong electron transfer occurred among the PMS, PCM molecules and the surface of catalyst [57,58].

Based on all mentioned above, it can be concluded that both the radical pathways of O_2 . and non-radical 1O_2 activated in the Fe-N@C/PMS system were the primary mechanisms for the PCM degradation, while the radicals SO_4 . and OH only showed a limited contribution in Fe-N@C/PMS system. Besides, the electron transfer among the PMS, PCM molecules and the surface of catalyst played an essential role in the degradation of PCM. Both singlet oxygen and surface electron migration mechanisms occurred with a coupled system as the non-radical pathways (Fig. 7c).

3.6. DFT calculations for the electronic properties of catalysts

DFT calculations were further conducted for the insights into the reaction sites on the Fe-N@C for PMS activation. It was known that the negative and positive regions in the electrostatic potentials (ESP) map represented the active sites for reduction and oxidation reactions [59]. Considering the essential role of graphitic N in the catalytic reaction, the ESP distributions on the graphitic N atom doped graphene fragments before and after PMS being adsorbed were investigated (Fe was not considered because of its absence in catalytic reaction). Fig. 8a shows an optimized pure graphene without the graphitic N, in which the ESP is evenly distributed on each C atom. After introducing the graphitic N on the surface of the graphene fragment, the ESP distribution becomes uneven (Fig. 8b). The positive potential is mainly located around the graphitic N atom while other atoms were not significantly affected. This result indicated that the homogeneous carbon network was greatly disturbed with endowed high chemical potentials. Free PMS molecule given in Fig. 8c showed a very negative potential

around its atoms. The possible adsorption model of PMS molecule onto graphitic N atom was shown in Fig. 8d. The ESP map suggested that the most electronegative part of the PMS being adsorbed onto the catalyst fragment was the area around the graphitic N atom and PMS molecule. The adsorption energies ($\Delta E_{\rm ads}$) of PMS molecular adsorbed onto the graphitic N area was calculated to be -2.62 eV. The extremely high $\Delta E_{\rm ads}$ indicated the graphitic N exerted the strong binding affinity towards the PMS molecules, which was beneficial to promote the PMS activation and nonradical oxidation on surface of the catalysts [43]. As above, it can be concluded that the doped graphitic N atom is the catalytic site of Fe-N@C for PCM degradation.

3.7. Effect of anions and humic acid on PCM degradation

PCM degradation with respect to different anions (H₂PO₄⁻, Cl⁻ and HCO₃⁻) in Fe-N@C/PMS system was shown in Fig. 9. It was reported that the H₂PO₄ always exhibited the robust affinity with the active sites of catalysts, which competitively inhibited the PMS activation [60,61]. However, H₂PO₄ with the backgrounds of 2–10 mM showed a marginal effect on the PCM degradation (Figs. 9a and S24a), which indicated that the PCM degradation in Fe-N@C/PMS system was most probably a nonradical process dominated by ¹O₂ [38]. PCM degradation by Fe-N@C/PMS at different Cl⁻ levels was presented in Fig. 9b. The addition of 2 mM chloride only resulted in a small decrease in the removal rate from 0.1213 to 0.0946 min⁻¹. The chloride could consume the SO₄'- or 'OH radicals, forming Cl' and Cl₂'- radicals with lower redox potentials (Eqs. (16)-(19)). However, as the chloride levels were further increased to 10 mM, a distinct increase in the k (0.1493 min⁻¹) was observed, which was even higher than that (0.1213 min⁻¹) in the absence of Cl⁻. In addition to be the radical scavengers, excessive Cl⁻ with negative charge could also donate electrons to PMS, generating superabundant active chlorine species and sulfate radicals under the activation of Fe-N@C [47], which could participate in the PCM degradation process [42]. PCM degradation in the background of different

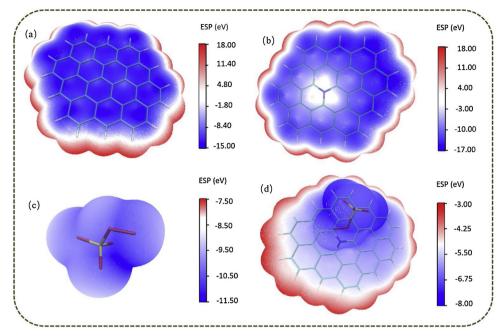


Fig. 8. Distributions of electrostatic potential (ESP) for different graphene fragments via DFT calculations: (a) pure graphene, (b) graphene with doping graphitic N atom, (c) PMS molecule, and (d) graphene with PMS be adsorbing.

levels of HCO_3^- showed the similar phenomenon (Fig. 9c), which was also in accordance with other reported works [42].

$$SO_4 \bullet^- + Cl^- \rightarrow SO_4^{2-} + Cl \bullet$$
 (16)

• OH+ Cl•
$$\rightarrow$$
 ClOH• (17)

$$CIOH^{\bullet^-} + H^+ \rightarrow Cl^{\bullet} + H_2O$$
 (18)

$$Cl \cdot + Cl^- \rightarrow Cl_2 \cdot \overline{}$$
 (19)

Unlike anions such as ${\rm H_2PO_4}^-$, ${\rm Cl}^-$ and ${\rm HCO_3}^-$, a stronger inhibitory effect was observed in the background of HA (2 mM) and the removal rates was decreased from 0.1213 to 0.0397 min⁻¹ (Fig. 9d). Interestingly, a further increase in HA from 2 to 10 mM only resulted in a slight k decrease from 0.0397 to 0.0323 min⁻¹, which was also existed

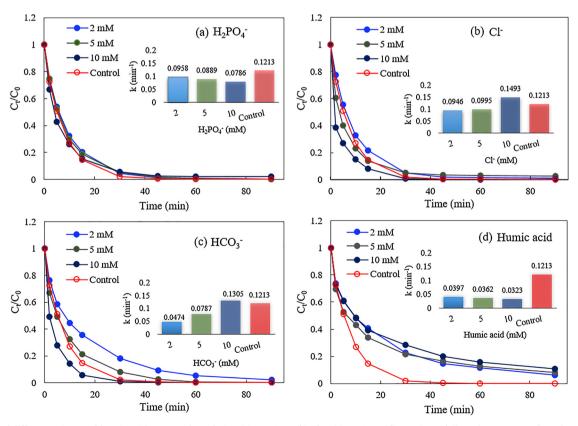


Fig. 9. Effect of different anions and humic acid on PCM degradation (a) $H_2PO_4^-$; (b) Cl^- ; (c) HCO_3^- ; (d) Humic acid ([PMS] $_0 = 0.5 \, \text{mM}$, [PCM] $_0 = 10 \, \text{mg/L}$, FeN@C dose = 0.1 g/L).

in other reported works [42,62–64]. Luo suggested the existence of weak reactive activity between 1O_2 and HA [42], which resulted in a small decrease in the non-radical reaction in Fe-N@C/PMS system. In addition, HA would be adhered on the surface of catalysts, covering the catalytic sites and preventing the interaction between the catalysts and PMS [62,65]. Nevertheless, HA might also have the stimulant effect. It is widely accepted that hydroquinones, quinones and phenols in HA could generate semiquinone radicals, which own the ability to activate PMS producing SO_4 - and $^{\circ}OH$ [62–66]. Besides, the quinone group (C=O) content in HA could appreciably stimulate the self-decomposition of PMS and facilitate the formation of $^{\circ}O_2$, thus enhancing the degradation of PCM in some degrees [55]. Therefore, part of retardation effect might be counteracted by the stimulant effect and finally achieve a balance.

Basically, the high removal rates of PCM achieved at high levels of coexisting anions and humic acid also contributed to the radical and non-radical mechanisms in the Fe-N@C/PMS systems.

3.8. Reusability and stability of catalyst

To test the stability and reusability of Fe-N@C for PMS activation, catalytic performances of the catalyst during the consecutive runs were performed at the same catalytic conditions. Fig. 10 showed that complete degradation of PCM still could be achieved after three cycles with the k decreasing from 0.1213 to 0.0556 min $^{-1}$, which demonstrated the excellent stability and reusability for PMS activation. The non-negligible decrease in removal rate may be caused by the coverage of surface sites by the adsorbed PCM as well as intermediates of PCM, which would reduce the contact area of Fe-N@C with PMS, thus contributing to the reduction in the catalytic activity. Compared with the fresh Fe-

N@C, crystalline spacing (0.3316 nm) of nanosheets in used Fe-N@C were also observed (Fig. 10b). In addition, the fractions of π - π * shake up satellite C (Fig. 10c) and graphitic N (Fig. 10d) in used catalyst were almost the same as those in fresh sample, implying that the structure of catalyst was stable after three successive cycles. The Fe 2p of used Fe-N@C only showed a small fraction change from Tet. Fe(III) to Oct. Fe (III) as compared with that of pristine catalyst (Fig. 10e). The PCM removal rate of used Fe-N@C was mostly recovered (k: 0.1142 min⁻¹) after heat regeneration (350 °C). The adsorbed PCM and intermediates could be removed from the surface of Fe-N@C after calcination, and therefore, the catalytic activity of used catalyst could be mostly recovered.

3.9. Degradation pathways analysis

The theoretical calculations were then used to further understand the PCM degradation in Fe-N@C/PMS system [67]. Fukui function is a promising access to predict the susceptibility of PCM molecule attacked by different radicals [68–70]. The optimized PCM model was presented in Fig. 11a. The Fukui function values of f° and f $^-$ (for the predicting the molecular reactivity to radical attack by O_2 . $^-$ and electrophilic attack by 1O_2) were presented in Table 2 and their contour surfaces were shown in Fig. 11b and c. The highest f_0 values of PCM were around the C2-C6 atoms in benzene ring, which indicated that the benzene ring was the most susceptible to be attacked by radical O_2 . In contrast, the high f_A - values were located at 110, 1C, 100, 4C and 7 N atoms, which indicated the high activities of 1C-11O, 8C-10O and 4C-7 N to be attacked by 1O_2 . In addition, other C atoms (2C, 3C, 5C and 6C) in benzene ring also showed high potential to be attacked by 1O_2 for the cleavage of benzene ring. As a result, the different pathways for PCM

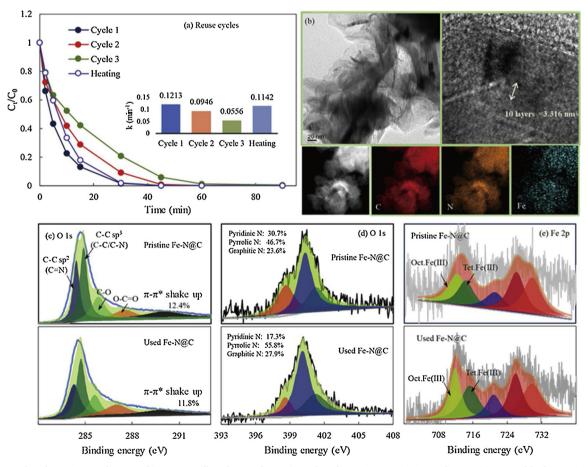


Fig. 10. Reuse cycles of Fe-N@C 700 for PCM; (b) TEM as well as elemental mappings of used Fe-N@C 700; (c) O 1 s; (d) N 1 s; (e) Fe 2p of fresh Fe-N@C and used Fe-N@C.

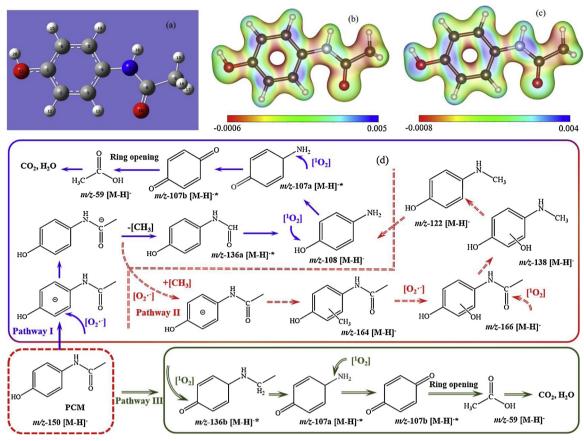


Fig. 11. (a) Optimized structure of PCM and the numbering system (gray: carbon; red: oxygen; blue: nitrogen; white: hydrogen); (b) contour surfaces of Fukui function values of f^{-} for radical attack, (c) Fukui function values of f^{-} for electrophilic attack; and (d) potential degradation pathways of PCM in Fe-N@C/PMS system (* hypothetical intermediate) (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article).

Table 2 The f° and f^{-} in PCM molecule.

Atom	f°	f^-	Atom	f°	\mathbf{f}^-
1C	0.064	0.083	12H	0.050	0.039
2C	0.093	0.065	13H	0.039	0.029
3C	0.083	0.055	14H	0.049	0.038
4C	0.063	0.078	15H	0.050	0.039
5C	0.091	0.065	16H	0.025	0.033
6C	0.091	0.063	17H	0.021	0.023
7N	0.039	0.075	18H	0.021	0.023
8C	0.030	0.035	19H	0.014	0.015
9C	0.016	0.017	20H	0.034	0.040
100	0.056	0.079	Total	1.000	1.000
110	0.072	0.105			

degradation might be involved considering the radical attack (O_2^-) and electrophilic attack $(^1O_2)$.

HPLC-MS analyses (negative model) were also carried out to identify the degradation intermediates of PCM in Fe-N@C/PMS system after 0, 5 and 15 min of irradiation. The degradation intermediates were presented in Table S6 and Fig. S26. Basically, three degradation pathways were denoted according to the degradation intermediates and DFT calculations. (i) In the pathway I, the radical $\rm O_2\cdot^-$ attacked the susceptible benzene ring of PCM and injected free radical electrons into the benzene ring. An extended pi bond was formed due to the connection of the N-lone pair electron with C = O bond and benzene ring. As a result, the free radical electron was transferred to the acylamino group and then led to demethylation on the acylamino group, forming the intermediate of p-hydroxyformanilide $m/z\text{-}136a~[M-H]^-$. It was followed by a deacylation reaction, forming the intermediate of aminophenol

 $(m/z-108 [M-H]^{-})$ [6]. The intermediates of p-aminobenzoquinone $(m/z-107a [M-H]^{-})$ and p-benzoquinone $(m/z-107b [M-H]^{-})$ could be transformed from the p-aminophenol $(m/z-108 [M-H]^{-})$ as the strong attack of ¹O₂ to the 4C-7 N bond. It was further degraded into the carboxylic acids after the ring cleavage [71,72]. These carboxylic acids could be converted into CO2 and H2O which finally realized the mineralization of PCM molecules. (ii) In the pathway II, the PCM degradation started with the methylation on the susceptible benzene ring and subsequent hydroxylation due to the attack of radical O_2 . [73], forming the intermediates with m/z-164 [M-H]- and m/z-166 $[M-H]^-$. After the further deacylation $(m/z-138 [M-H]^-)$, dihydroxylation $(m/z-122 [M-H]^{-})$ and demethylation reactions [74], the p-aminophenol $(m/z-108 \text{ [M-H]}^-)$ was also formed. (iii) In the pathway III, the cleavage of C = O bond and -OH in benzene ring occurred due to the attack of 1O2, forming the intermediate of p-ethylaminophenone m/z-136b $[M-H]^-$. The intermediate of p-aminobenzoquinone $(m/z-107a [M-H]^{-})$ was created as the attack of ${}^{1}O_{2}$ onto the 7 N-8C bond. The further attack on 4C-7 N bond formed the pbenzoquinone $(m/z-107b [M-H]^-)$, which would be degraded into the carboxylic acid and further converted into CO₂ and H₂O. As a result, the degradation intermediates as well as the pathways were consistent with the Fukui function values of f° and f-(indicating the atom activities of PCM by the attack of O_2 . and 1O_2).

4. Conclusions

An environmentally friendly, facile, and economical carbonaceous material (Fe-N@C) was prepared by simple thermal treatment of *Enteromorpha* biomass and the intrinsic N/Fe in *Enteromorpha* was codoped into the carbon layers of the catalyst. SEM and TEM images

indicated the forms of graphitic nanosheets in the Fe-N@C with N and Fe well distributed. High graphitic N fractions derived from the intrinsic N in Enteromorpha and other biomass were observed, which showed the high correlation with the PCM removal rate. In contrast, intrinsic Fe in Enteromorpha did not affect the PCM degradation. The radical pathways involving SO₄. and OH only donated a very small contribution to the PCM removal. In contrast, both the radical pathways of O2- and nonradical 1O2 activated in the Fe-N@C/PMS system were the primary pathways for the PCM degradation. Complete degradation of PCM still could be achieved after three consecutive runs and PCM removal rate of used Fe-N@C was mostly recovered (k: 0.1142 min⁻¹) after heat regeneration (500 °C). All these results indicated the high stability and reusability of Fe-N@C for PMS activation. Adsorption energies (ΔE_{ads}) of PMS molecular adsorbed onto the graphitic N area was -2.62 eV based on the DFT calculation, which indicated that the graphitic N can activate PMS via enhancing PMS adsorption on the catalysts. In addition, different pathways for PCM degradation were involved considering the radical attack (O_2^{-}) and electrophilic attack $(^1O_2)$, which were confirmed by the DFT calculations.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

Acknowledgements

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2019.03.048.

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